

## Tropical forests in the Americas are changing too slowly to track climate change

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237 **Abstract:** Understanding the capacity of forests to adapt to climate change is of pivotal importance  
238 for conservation science, yet this is still widely unknown. This knowledge gap is particularly acute in  
239 high biodiversity tropical forests. Here we examine how tropical forests of the Americas have shifted  
240 community traits composition in recent decades as a response to changes in climate. Based on  
241 historical trait-climate relationships we found that, overall, the studied functional traits show shifts of  
242 less than 8% of the expected shift given observed changes in climate. However, the recruit  
243 assemblage shows shifts of 21% relative to climate change expectation. The most diverse forests  
244 on Earth are changing in functional trait composition, but at a rate that is fundamentally insufficient  
245 to track climate change.

246

247 **One-Sentence Summary:** The trait composition of tropical forests in the Americas is changing  
248 but not fast enough to keep track of climate change.

250 Forest responses to human-driven perturbations, such as climate change, will largely  
251 determine the diversity and function of the terrestrial biosphere through this century and  
252 beyond. Tropical forests in the Americas host the greatest concentration of tree species in the  
253 world (1), including six key biodiversity hotspots (2) and half of Earth's most intact tropical  
254 forests (3). In the face of threats from climate change and continuing loss in area and integrity  
255 (3, 4, 5, 6), it is both critical and urgent to understand the ability of these complex systems to  
256 adapt to change and survive.

257         Within tropical American forests (referring to all forests encompassing continental  
258 areas from Brazil to Mexico), lowland forests provide relatively homogenous climatic  
259 conditions over large areas, potentially allowing the existence of common functional  
260 adaptations over large spatial extents. In contrast, across mountain forests climatic conditions  
261 tend to change rapidly in space, potentially facilitating rapid turnover of functional adaptations  
262 to local environmental conditions. In Amazonia, changes in precipitation patterns and more  
263 frequent droughts have led to an increase in the recruitment of dry-affiliated species  
264 (xerophilization) (7). In the Andes, rising temperatures have led to increasing abundances of  
265 species tolerant to higher temperature (thermophilization) (8). Across Mesoamerica it is  
266 expected that climate change will cause an expansion of tropical dry forests to higher  
267 elevations (over 200 m above current average elevation) (9). However, tree species may be  
268 unable to shift their distribution fast enough to track their climatic niche, given their slow  
269 demography (e.g. growth and recruitment), the prevalence of dispersal limitation (10) and  
270 different environmental tolerances at different life stages (11). All these limitations would  
271 increase the vulnerability of tree species to climate change across tropical American forests.  
272 For instance, in higher latitudes recent work has shown large range contractions of tree  
273 species rather than range expansions or shifts (12). Changes in climate across the tropical  
274 Americas are expected to become stronger, with some scenarios projecting temperature  
275 increases of up to ~4°C and precipitation reductions close to 20% by 2100 (13, 14, 15). This  
276 would likely increase the vulnerability of current tree species assemblages as they would face  
277 climates they have not previously experienced (16), potentially selecting for no-analog future  
278 plant communities (17).

279 Functional traits mediate species responses to environmental change, impacting plant  
280 performance and species distributions (18, 19, 20). These morphological, structural,  
281 chemical, and phenological characteristics tend to show consistent relationships with climate  
282 and soil conditions (21). Recent work has shown positive relationships between mean annual  
283 temperature and leaf area, specific leaf area, leaf nitrogen, wood density and leaf thickness  
284 (22) depicting plant functional adaptations to local environmental conditions. Other work has  
285 detected a negative relationship with elevation for specific leaf area and leaf nitrogen,  
286 potentially as adaptation to cooler environments with lower nutrient availability (22). Hence,  
287 these traits are tightly linked to the capacity of species to respond to environmental changes.  
288 For instance having large area can increase leaf temperature due to higher solar absorption,  
289 while smaller leaves dissipate heat more effectively and help avoid water losses. Plants with  
290 lower specific leaf area, i.e. with thicker and tougher leaves, tend to be more resistant to  
291 drought as these can better resist water loss. High wood density is tightly related to increased  
292 resistance to cavitation which can increase their capacity to survive droughts. Therefore, a  
293 trait-based approach provides a promising framework for predicting the impacts of climate  
294 change and resilience across forest ecosystems (19, 23, 24).

295         It is still unclear how shifts in the abundance and distribution of species translate into  
296 changes in the functional trait composition, and what functional changes have occurred  
297 through the last half century as a response to the onset of a warmer, drier and more variable  
298 climate across the tropical Americas. Moreover, it is unknown if forest-level functional shifts  
299 are more attributable to differential growth among the surviving trees than to the addition (i.e.  
300 recruitment) or removal (i.e. mortality) of trees to the assemblage. It is also uncertain if these  
301 functional shifts match the direction of climate change, and if so, whether the rate of functional  
302 trait change keeps pace with climate change or lags behind. Understanding the above will

303 allow the quantification of the present, and likely future, capacity of forest to adapt to a  
304 changing climate and to uncover which functional trait characteristics may confer forests  
305 higher adaptation capacity to a changing climate.

306 Here, we address these knowledge gaps by analysing 415 long-term forest plot sites  
307 monitored over more than 40 years (1980 - 2021). This dataset includes information on the  
308 identity, size, recruitment and mortality of >250,000 individual trees across the tropics from  
309 Mexico to southern Brazil. Our effort spans relatively undisturbed forests from the lowland  
310 tropics (hereafter forest plots <700 m elevation) to pre-montane and montane zones (>700 m  
311 elevation; henceforth referred to as montane) from the Andes to subtropical fringes (Fig. 1;  
312 data S1). These forests are distributed along a wide range of climatic and soil conditions (Fig.  
313 1B) and have experienced strong changes in climate over the past decades (Fig. 1C). We  
314 combine this monitoring and analysis of changes in the plant community composition with  
315 measurements of 12 plant functional traits that are potentially involved in responses to a  
316 changing climate. These include photosynthetic capacity ( $A_{\text{sat}}$ ), leaf chemistry (content of  
317 carbon: C, nitrogen: N and phosphorus: P), leaf area (Area), specific leaf area (SLA), leaf fresh  
318 mass (FM), leaf thickness ("Thickness"), abundance of deciduous species (DE), adult  
319 maximum height ( $H_{\text{max}}$ ), wood density (WD) and seed mass (SM) (table S1). Tree functional  
320 trait data were obtained for several plots from local field collections carried out by collaborators  
321 (25, 26, 27), the Global Ecosystems Monitoring network (GEM; [gem.tropicalforests.ox.ac.uk](http://gem.tropicalforests.ox.ac.uk))  
322 (28), and ForestPlots ([www.ForestPlots.net](http://www.ForestPlots.net)) (29) in addition to databases from BIEN  
323 ([bien.nceas.ucsb.edu](http://bien.nceas.ucsb.edu)), TRY ([www.try-db.org](http://www.try-db.org)) (30) and Díaz et al. (19, 31).

324  
325 We first investigate long-term plant trait-environment relationships to understand how  
326 climate drives trait distributions in tropical forests of the Americas and if these relationships  
327 are consistent across lowland and montane forests. We expect temperature and water  
328 availability to be the main drivers of plant trait distributions, with warmer and drier areas  
329 facilitating the dominance of more conservative trait syndromes (e.g. smaller and thicker  
330 leaves, higher wood density, lower photosynthetic capacity) in comparison to warm and wetter  
331 areas (32, 33). Moreover, we expect trait-environment relationships to differ between lowland  
332 and montane forests given the different climatic ranges of these forest types.

333  
334 We then examine how and where lowland and montane tropical American forests have  
335 shifted in their functional trait composition due to changes in the plant community taxonomic  
336 composition over the last four decades. We do this by analysing the annual rate of change  
337 ( $\Delta r$ ) of the trait community-weighted mean (CWM) for all forests (lowland and montane  
338 together) and for lowland and montane forest separately. Because of the long lifespan of  
339 tropical trees (34) and their slow turnover, we performed this analysis at the full community  
340 level and separately for the recruiting ('recruit'), mortality ('fatality'), and surviving (here  
341 onwards 'survivor') assemblages (Fig. 2). Analysing changes at the full community level  
342 (involving all trees >10 cm DBH alive) allows us to understand how communities are changing  
343 in their trait CWM given tree growth, survival and recruitment together. Analysing the survivor  
344 (change in CWM given by growth) assemblage alone will allow gaining insights into potentially  
345 more resistant trait values, while analyses for the fatality assemblages will identify potentially  
346 less resistant trait values. The recruit community will impact the full community level trait  
347 composition dependent on their basal area and will provide information on potentially better  
348 adapted trait values to the current climate that allow them to recruit into the community, as  
349 well as indicate the possible composition of future forests.

350 We further analysed if observed changes in trait composition have been enough to  
351 track climate change to date by comparing observed and expected trait changes based on  
352 historical trait-environment relationships (see materials and methods (35)). This climate  
353 change tracking analysis was carried out for the full community, survivor and recruit  
354 assemblages but not for the fatality assemblage because these individuals will not contribute  
355 to future change (Fig. 2).

356 Given exposure to a drying and warming climate, we could reasonably expect  
357 increased abundance of species exhibiting more drought-tolerance traits (i.e. in the 'slow'

358 section of the plant economics spectrum) (36), such as high wood density (e.g. to prevent  
359 cavitation) (37) and smaller, thicker leaves (e.g. for lower evapotranspiration and reduced  
360 radiation exposure) (38). However, it's also possible that increasing drought will drive a shift  
361 toward drought-avoidance traits, notably deciduousness (often associated with more  
362 acquisitive leaves) (32, 39). Seed traits play a pivotal role in the reproduction and dispersal  
363 capacity of species (40). Under an unstable, warming and drying climate, we might expect  
364 species with smaller wind-dispersed seeds to increase in abundance (41). This is because  
365 wind-dispersed seeds, which are more common in drier and more seasonal biomes, tend to  
366 be smaller than animal-dispersed seeds (42). However, other factors, such as wind and fire  
367 disturbance, defaunation of frugivorous seed-dispersing mammals and birds, may disrupt the  
368 expected trends in seed traits as these drive more strongly their shifts at short time scales  
369 than a changing climate (43). If migration is an important component of species response to  
370 climate change, we would also expect montane forests to show stronger functional responses  
371 than lowland forests given their more varied climatic conditions at shorter distances (8, 33),  
372 which make it potentially easier to migrate to a favorable climate than in the lowlands (44, 45,  
373 46, 47). In montane forests, nutrient availability (e.g., N:P ratios) can vary significantly along  
374 altitudinal gradients due to substantial changes in temperature and water availability (48). As  
375 a result, we expect strong functional responses to soil nutrient availability across these  
376 elevation gradients.

377  
378 We expect that, given the long lifespan of tropical trees and rapid pace of recent  
379 climate change, forests will show ecological inertia, so that changes in functional composition  
380 lag behind changes in climate. We expect the full community and survivor assemblages to  
381 show slower change given their change is largely dependent on tree growth, which is a slow  
382 process among tropical forests trees. The recruit and fatality assemblages may show faster  
383 and larger community trait responses as they are less dependent on growth and more  
384 dependent on local climate conditions.

### 385 386 **Long-term trait-environment relationships**

387 To evaluate long-term (1980-2021) trait-climate relationships across tropical American forests,  
388 we used data from 415 forest plots (mean plot size 0.88 [min: 0.12, max: 25] ha and 5.7 [min:  
389 2, max: 41] censuses per plot), for which we extracted climate (49) and soil (50) data for their  
390 sampling years. As species' contributions to ecosystem processes likely depend on their  
391 relative abundances (51), we calculated the community-weighted mean of each plant  
392 functional trait (table S1) for each plot based on the relative basal area of the species and their  
393 trait value (hereafter "community functional traits"). The trait values were obtained from the  
394 sources mentioned above (19, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31). We then modelled each community  
395 functional trait as a function of the additive effects of relevant and largely uncorrelated climatic  
396 drivers of species distributions (Fig. S1), i.e., the mean annual values of temperature ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ ),  
397 vapour pressure deficit ( $VPD_{\text{mean}}$ ) (52), maximum climatic water deficit ( $MCWD_{\text{mean}}$ ) (53) and  
398 standardised precipitation-evapotranspiration index ( $SPEI_{12}$ ) (54), each one of these  
399 interacting with forest type (lowland or montane). As soil characteristics can impact plant  
400 distributions (24), we included cation exchange capacity (CEC), pH, and the percentage of  
401 clay and sand for each plot location in the models (see materials and methods (35)). We  
402 accounted for differences in the number of censuses, plot size and census time per vegetation  
403 plot and for the potential spatial autocorrelation.

404 Several community functional traits show consistent relationships with climate across  
405 forest type (table S2; Fig. S2), with temperature showing some of the strongest effects driving  
406 plant trait distributions across lowland and montane forests (Fig. 3). As expected, an increase  
407 in temperature ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ ) across space is associated with an increase in community-mean leaf  
408 area and seed mass, and a decrease in photosynthetic capacity, specific leaf area, and the  
409 proportion of deciduous species across lowland and montane forests. Moreover, an increase  
410 in water stress ( $MCWD_{\text{mean}}$ ) is associated with decreases in specific leaf area and adult  
411 maximum height for both forest types (table S2; Fig. S2). This represents an increase in the  
412 conservative trait strategy linked to more extreme conditions.

413 However, the relationship with temperature is not consistent across lowland and  
414 montane forests for leaf chemistry (leaf carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus content), wood  
415 density, adult maximum height, leaf fresh mass or leaf thickness (Fig. 3). An increase in water  
416 stress ( $MCWD_{mean}$ ) is associated with an increase in photosynthetic capacity, leaf nitrogen  
417 content, leaf area and wood density across lowland forests but decreases in montane forests  
418 (table S2; Fig. S2). The increase in these leaf traits in drier forests could be associated with  
419 the high photosynthetic rates generally attained by deciduous species over the growing  
420 season (55, 56) and the fact that lower adult maximum height and higher wood density tend  
421 to correlate with higher resistance to lethally low levels of soil moisture availability (57).  
422 However, consistent climatic relationships across both forest types are not apparent for the  
423 other traits analysed (table S2; Fig. S2). One plausible explanation is that this reflects their  
424 different position along the climatic gradient (i.e. temperature and precipitation), with lowlands  
425 occupying areas with more homogeneous climate conditions across large spatial extents in  
426 comparison to montane forests, which span a large range of climates across smaller spatial  
427 extents.

## 428 **Changes in trait composition across time**

429 We next asked if and how the functional trait composition of tropical American forests has  
430 shifted, and how much of this can be explained by observed changes in climate over the past  
431 40 years. We first calculated the community-weighted mean (CWM) of each plant functional  
432 trait for each vegetation census available for full community assemblage, and separately for  
433 the survivor (individuals that are alive in two subsequent censuses, e.g. from census one to  
434 census two), recruit (individuals not present in the previous census and recruited in the  
435 subsequent census) and fatality (individuals alive in previous census but dead in the  
436 subsequent census) assemblages. We define the recruit assemblage as individuals that  
437 passed the threshold of 10 cm DBH between one census and the next. Then we calculated  
438 their yearly rate of change across time. We tested if the changes in trait CWM differed from  
439 zero across all vegetation plots, with plots separated into lowland and montane forests. We  
440 calculated the Highest Density Interval (HDI) containing the 95% most probable effect values  
441 and considered it significant when the HDI did not overlap 0. We then investigated whether  
442 the observed shifts in trait CWM differed significantly between lowland and montane forests.  
443 For shorthand and readability, all mention of mean traits and shifts below refer to CWM trait  
444 values.

445 When considering all plots together for the full community assemblage, we found that  
446 seven out of the 12 traits analysed exhibited significant changes in their CWM values (Fig. S3;  
447 see Fig. 4 for trait changes across assemblages). Only leaf nitrogen, fresh mass, specific leaf  
448 area, seed mass and wood density did not show significant shifts across time (table S3; Fig.  
449 S4). The survivor assemblage showed the same pattern of community trait changes (table S3;  
450 Fig. 5) as the full community assemblage, with the main differences being a significant  
451 decrease in leaf fresh mass in the lowlands for the survivor assemblage. Hence, hereafter we  
452 focus on the results from the survivor, recruit and fatality assemblages. Overall, we found  
453 larger variation in trait CWM across space (i.e. with geographical variation in climate) than  
454 across time. For the community traits with significant changes for the survivor assemblage,  
455 we found an average increase in photosynthetic capacity of  $0.0023 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  (HDI-  
456 low and HDI-high: 0.0007, 0.0038), leaf carbon content  $0.0011\% \text{ year}^{-1}$  (0.0004, 0.0019),  
457 phosphorus  $1.6 \times 10^{-5}\% \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $5.7 \times 10^{-6}$ ,  $2.7 \times 10^{-5}$ ), the abundance of deciduous species  $0.03$   
458  $\% \text{ year}^{-1}$  (0.01, 0.05) and adult maximum height  $0.006 \text{ m year}^{-1}$  (0.002, 0.009), while  
459 community leaf area decreased on average  $-0.03 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ year}^{-1}$  (-0.06, -0.007) and leaf thickness  
460 decreased  $-0.05 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$  (-0.08, -0.02) (Fig. 5; table S3). In the lowland forests, we detected  
461 significant trait changes for six (increasing: photosynthetic capacity, leaf carbon content, adult  
462 maximum height and abundance of deciduous species; decreasing: leaf area and fresh mass)  
463 out of the 12 traits analysed (table S3; Fig. 5). Montane forests showed significant, but rather  
464 small, increases in leaf carbon, phosphorus and the abundance of deciduous species (table  
465 S3; Fig. 5).

466 The recruit assemblage experienced significant changes for seven traits, with six  
467 showing decreases, i.e. leaf carbon content  $-0.014\% \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $-0.02, -0.001$ ; in montane forests),  
468 leaf nitrogen content  $-0.002\% \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $-0.004, -0.0002$ ), leaf thickness  $-0.04 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$  ( $-0.08, -$   
469  $0.01$ ), deciduousness  $-0.17\% \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $-0.33, -0.02$ ), adult maximum height ( $-0.03 \text{ m year}^{-1}$  [ $-$   
470  $0.07, -0.003$ ], and WD:  $-0.0007 \text{ g cm}^3 \text{ year}^{-1}$ ). The leaf fresh mass of recruits increased on  
471 average  $0.04 \text{ g year}^{-1}$  ( $0.006, 0.08$ ; Fig. 5; table S3). For the fatality assemblage, only the  
472 CWM of leaf nitrogen content  $-0.004\% \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $-0.007, -0.001$ ; montane forests), leaf fresh  
473 mass,  $-0.02 \text{ g year}^{-1}$  ( $-0.05, -0.0003$ ) and seed mass  $-17.7 \text{ mg year}^{-1}$  ( $-29.9, -5.7$ ) in lowland  
474 forests experienced significant declines (Fig. 5; table S3).

475 To help identify the underlying climatic drivers of forest functional change, we used  
476 multivariate linear models to estimate the yearly change ( $\Delta r$ ; i.e. from first to last census), in  
477 the trait values ( $\Delta r$  trait CWM) as a function of the yearly rate of change in temperature ( $\Delta T_r$ ),  
478 maximum climatic water deficit ( $\Delta \text{MCWD}_r$ ), standardised precipitation-evapotranspiration  
479 index ( $\Delta \text{SPEI}_r$ ) and vapour pressure deficit ( $\Delta \text{VPD}_r$ ), each one of these interacting with forest  
480 type, and accounted for soil characteristics by including in the models the CEC, pH, clay and  
481 sand content (maps in Fig. S3 to Fig. S8). Our results for the full community assemblage,  
482 survivor and for recruit and fatality assemblages (table S4) demonstrate the role of climate,  
483 specifically temperature and water availability, as a determinant of trait shifts across the  
484 forests, and show the differences in response between lowland and montane forests (table  
485 S4). Our mapped model predictions (maps in Fig. S3 to Fig. S8) depict in a spatially explicit  
486 way areas where stable CWM trait values (light yellow and light blue), their increases (darker  
487 blue) or decreases (yellow to red) are predicted to have occurred across tropical American  
488 forests with some of the strongest CWM trait shifts predicted across forests in Amazonia.

#### 489 **Can tropical American forest functional composition track climate change?**

490 We next examined whether the observed community trait changes are sufficient to maintain  
491 expected trait-environment relationships for the full community, the survivor, and the recruit  
492 assemblages, based on spatial relationships between traits and climate. We expected  
493 recruitment to be more sensitive to climate change as the full community is dominated by the  
494 demographic inertia of established adult trees. To quantify the trait changes that would be  
495 necessary for forest communities to track predicted climate change, we first quantified the  
496 relationship between community traits and environment before most anthropogenic climate  
497 changes occurred (1980-2005; i.e., as baseline CWM trait-environment relationships). We  
498 took our observed trait-climate relationships (built with the 1980-2005 period data; table S5)  
499 and used them to predict the trait CWM to the 1980-2005 climate conditions plus the observed  
500 changes in climate across the study sites for the full time period (the last 40 years). This  
501 allowed us to predict the CWM trait values that the forests would have if they fully tracked  
502 recent climate change, assuming that trait-climate relationships are similar across space and  
503 time (table S6 and table S7). The ratio between the observed and the expected changes (for  
504 the full and the recruit assemblages) indicates how closely these forest traits are tracking our  
505 climate equilibrium predictions based on community changes alone (Fig. 6).

506 Our results show that for all measured traits of the survivor and full community  
507 assemblages, the community trait composition is not changing sufficiently to track climate  
508 change, with most changes being rather small and unlikely to represent important impacts on  
509 ecosystem functioning. However, the recruit community shows the largest shifts (Fig. 4, Fig.  
510 6; results for all assemblages are in Fig. S9). At the region-wide scale for the survivor  
511 assemblages, all traits show less than 8% for lowland forests and 4% for montane forest of  
512 the change required to track climate. For the full community assemblage, all traits show less  
513 than 6% of the climate-predicted shifts in the expected direction for lowland forests and 7%  
514 for montane forest of the expected change (Fig. S9; table S6 and table S7). Several traits  
515 show very little change or even modest changes in the opposite direction to those expected  
516 (Fig. 6A and Fig. 6B). We detected larger community trait shifts in the recruit assemblages of  
517 an average 21.8% of the change required for lowland forests and 17.5% for montane forests  
518 when only traits shifting in the expected direction are considered. When both, shifts in the  
519 expected direction and in opposite direction, are considered, the recruit assemblage shows  
520 an average shift of 11.4% for lowland and  $-0.67\%$  for mountain forests (Fig. 6C and Fig. 6D;  
521 table S6 and table S7). In lowland forests, community mean wood density appears to be

522 changing fast enough in the recruit assemblages to track climate change expectation. Overall,  
523 we see some evidence of how the recruit forest assemblages of lowland and montane forests  
524 are shifting their community traits, often for different sets of community mean trait values, in  
525 response to climate change. However, for most traits even the recruit community does not  
526 seem to be changing quickly enough to track climate change. More significant community trait  
527 shifts have occurred in lowland than in montane forests, which is consistent with a more rapidly  
528 drying climate in lowland forests (Fig. 5; table S3).

## 529 **Discussion**

530 Overall, we find that 1) trait-environment relationships are similar for most of the studied traits  
531 across lowland and montane tropical American forests; 2) lowland forests show significant  
532 and larger changes in more community traits analysed than montane forests; 3) across the  
533 forests and for the full community and survivor assemblages, the abundance of deciduous  
534 species is increasing, with accompanying increases in leaf photosynthetic capacity and  
535 decreases in leaf area and leaf thickness, yet the recruit communities in the lowland forests  
536 have on average decreased in the abundance of deciduous species, leaf nitrogen content and  
537 wood density; and 4) crucially, for the full tree community and survivor assemblages most of  
538 these traits are changing at only a fraction of the rate required to maintain equilibrium with  
539 climate. Notably, the recruit communities show the best tracking of a changing climate.

540 The community trait shifts were similar for the survivor and full community  
541 assemblages and, although significant in several cases, these have been rather small over  
542 the past 40 years. In general, such community trait changes differed from those of the recruit  
543 and fatality assemblages. This is likely because the trait shift responses of the survivor and  
544 full community assemblages are dominated by large individuals that continued growing  
545 throughout the study period. Another potential explanation is that the survivor and full  
546 community assemblages, along with their concurrent functional trait composition, are still able  
547 to withstand the observed changes in climate. The survivor and full community assemblages  
548 have shifted towards more deciduous communities with higher photosynthetic capacity, leaf  
549 chemistry and adult maximum height. At the same time, we uncover a general decrease in  
550 leaf thickness for the survivor and recruit assemblages. Temporal increases in VPD have  
551 potentially favoured increases in the proportion of deciduous species, especially across  
552 montane forests, and increases in MCWD partially explain decreases in leaf thickness.  
553 Overall, deciduous species tend to have acquisitive leaf traits with higher leaf nitrogen and  
554 phosphorus, photosynthetic capacity and photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency, especially  
555 under water stress (58), than evergreen species (59, 60). The pattern observed across tropical  
556 American forests could be attributable to leguminous nitrogen-fixing species that dominate in  
557 dry forests which are often deciduous and with higher photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency  
558 (61). This is consistent with a previous report for West African tropical forests, where  
559 increasing drought stress co-occurred with an increased abundance of deciduous species,  
560 and where changes in deciduousness explained changes in other morphological, structural  
561 and leaf chemistry traits (56). The abundance of deciduous species may be limited by soil  
562 fertility (62) in areas such as in south-eastern Amazonia (more so the Guiana Shield), where  
563 short-lived deciduous leaf construction is a too-costly strategy. Thus, increase in  
564 deciduousness is expected to be one adaptation strategy, especially in dry tropical forests  
565 with more seasonal precipitation regimes and nutrient rich soils than wetter tropical forests.

566 There is a mismatch in trait responses to climate change between the recruit  
567 assemblage and both the full community and survivor assemblages. This mismatch is most  
568 pronounced with respect to the abundance of deciduous species, leaf carbon, and adult  
569 maximum height. With increasing temperatures and reduced water availability, we expected  
570 an increase in abundance of deciduous species to also be reflected in the recruit assemblage  
571 (56). However, the decline in abundance of deciduous species in the recruit assemblage  
572 indicates potential shifts in phenological strategies towards more conservative strategies in  
573 response to increasing temperatures or altered precipitation patterns. The recruit  
574 assemblages also select for lower leaf carbon and species with shorter adult maximum  
575 heights. This finding suggests a decoupling in trait space between the functional trait

576 characteristics of the mature forests we see in the present, and the possible future functional  
577 composition of tropical American forests. The selection for low leaf nitrogen in the recruit and  
578 fatality assemblages raises the question of whether and to what extent such recruit  
579 assemblages with low leaf nitrogen content will be able to survive to larger adult sizes (e.g.  
580 58, 63), especially across montane forests where there is a stronger mismatch. Such a  
581 decoupling in trait space between the recruit and survivor assemblages could potentially  
582 indicate the slow beginnings of forest-level adjustment to new climatic conditions, which is  
583 likely to impact the functioning of tropical forest ecosystems (64). We did not find a significant  
584 selection against deciduous species in the fatality assemblage. This suggests that a  
585 combination of drought avoidance and drought resistance strategies (38) could both be  
586 playing an important role as means of adaptation to a warming climate across lowland and  
587 montane tropical forests.

588 Other factors may be promoting the observed change in community-mean traits, such  
589 as species interactions and defaunation, the latter being a potentially important driver of  
590 changes in dispersal traits across time (65). Some wetter regions (e.g., central Amazonia)  
591 show slight increases in seed mass for the full community (Fig. S4 D), with the fatality  
592 assemblage showing significant declines in individuals with smaller seeds in the lowlands (Fig.  
593 5). However, drier regions (e.g., southern and eastern fringes of Amazonia) and montane  
594 forests show a slight predicted decline in seed mass (Fig. S4 D). These changes may be an  
595 indicator of defaunation pressure (66) as spatial predictions of decreases in seed mass broadly  
596 match spatial patterns of high defaunation (67), especially in those more accessible areas of  
597 Mesoamerica, and both south and eastern Brazil. They could also be driven by climatic factors  
598 as the observed changes are consistent with a shift from endozoochory (animal dispersal) to  
599 anemochory (wind dispersal), with the latter exhibiting smaller seeds than those dispersed by  
600 animals and being more prevalent in drier biomes (42). Including other relevant traits, such as  
601 those related to hydraulics and thermal tolerance, and considering ecological interactions  
602 could further bring new evidence of these potential forest adjustments to a changing climate.

603 The survivor, full community and recruit assemblages often show more changes in  
604 traits in lowland than montane forest. Lowland forests are highly dynamic and harbour a high  
605 functional trait diversity that potentially allows for selection from a wider pool of trait values  
606 under climate stress. There has been a larger increase in atmospheric VPD in lowland forests  
607 than in montane forests, caused by more pronounced increases in temperature over the last  
608 40 years, which could partially explain the shift of a larger number of community functional  
609 traits in lowland than montane forests (68). Larger increases in VPD and more severe droughts  
610 appear to have modified the community composition of lowland forests more strongly than  
611 that of montane forest, towards a set of species better adapted to drier and hotter conditions,  
612 which could be due to the mortality of more vulnerable species (52). Recent work across sites  
613 in the Amazon and Andes also suggest an important impact of increasing temperatures and  
614 declines in water availability on tree trait composition (69). We investigated the impact of  
615 macroclimate on the changes in functional trait composition of tropical forests. However, such  
616 macroclimate conditions may not directly mirror the microclimatic conditions found under the  
617 forest canopy such as temperature (70). This is of particular importance when investigating  
618 the effects of a changing climate, especially on the recruit assemblages, which tend to occupy  
619 the space below the canopies of the older larger trees. Ultimately, such microclimatic  
620 conditions may play an important role for determining the responses of understorey plants to  
621 a changing climate (71, 72, 73) and therefore on the rate of change in community trait  
622 composition of the recruit assemblages. Hence, microclimatic conditions at the plot level may  
623 partly explain the differences in trait shifts between the full community and survivor  
624 assemblages and the recruit assemblages.

625 It would mechanistically be expected that increasing drought would cause plant  
626 communities to shift to species with higher wood density and thicker leaves or that the  
627 abundance of deciduous species would increase across time. Such coordinated changes may  
628 not readily happen in the community as it is whole phenotypes that are changing, i.e. particular  
629 combinations of traits, rather than isolated traits. Moreover, coordination of different strategies

630 could allow for alternative adaptations to the same drivers. For example, drier conditions might  
631 encourage deciduousness combined with low wood density and thin leaves (drought  
632 avoidance), or evergreenness combined with high wood density and thicker leaves (drought  
633 tolerance). The favoured combination(s) may depend on forest seasonality patterns and soil  
634 nutrients. Furthermore, not all trait combinations may be present in any given regional species  
635 pool, even in species-rich biomes, which may limit the shifts in community traits that can occur  
636 at any given time as a response to environmental change. Other factors may also contribute  
637 to trait shifts or a lack thereof across forest communities, such as soil conditions (74), biotic  
638 interactions (e.g., animal-plant interactions) (75) and wind disturbance (76). Our analyses  
639 represent community-wide responses mainly based on trait information at the species and  
640 genus level; traits may also express intraspecific plasticity that we are unable to assess here  
641 given the scale and multidecadal nature of the study. Some traits may show more or less  
642 plasticity than others and species intraspecific variation may contribute to adaptation to a  
643 changing climate (77, 78). Overall, there is a lack of knowledge and data on the extent to  
644 which intraspecific trait variation plays a role in the adaptation of tree communities to a  
645 changing climate across the tropics. Here, we analysed only a set of relevant plant functional  
646 traits without adding information on intraspecific trait variation. Further research could focus  
647 on understanding responses of tree communities to climate change, including as much as  
648 possible information on intraspecific trait variation, and analysing other relevant traits. These  
649 could be hydraulic and thermal tolerance traits, which at the moment are not widely available  
650 for across tropical American forests.

651 In conclusion, we find that overall changes in community trait composition are leading  
652 to small shifts amounting to only ~10% of the expectation given climate change. These shifts  
653 are primarily driven by variation in growth rates of existing trees, rather than by recruitment or  
654 tree mortality. However, we observed larger changes for the recruit assemblage, directionally  
655 tracking climate at an average of 21%, which can potentially contribute to keeping these  
656 forests closer to, although still far from the equilibrium with climate. Trees are long-lived  
657 organisms with slow turnover rates compared to the rate of climate change and this partly  
658 explains the differences observed in community trait shifts between the full community and  
659 those of the recruit assemblages. There are specific areas where there seems to be a larger  
660 lag in forest responses to climate changes, especially in the Maya forest in Mesoamerica (79),  
661 and both the Atlantic forest and the southern Amazon forest in Brazil (80), which have become  
662 increasingly fragmented over time. Consequently, impacts of other disturbances across these  
663 regions, such as habitat fragmentation and in general a more constrained physical  
664 environment, may be impacting the capacity of forests to adjust to new climate conditions (44,  
665 81). Our analysis demonstrates that tree community composition is shifting to track climate  
666 change, but that the overwhelming onus would have to be on within-species variability and  
667 trait plasticity (82, 83) to adequately track climate change. However, the changes in climate  
668 are likely to be too fast for adaptive phenotypic plasticity to keep track, especially in  
669 environments with low climatic heterogeneity (82, 83). Hence it is overwhelmingly likely that  
670 tree species composition and functional properties of tropical American forests (and probably  
671 all tropical forests) are increasingly out of equilibrium with local climate. Such disequilibrium  
672 almost certainly increases vulnerability to a further changing climate.

## 673 **Summary of methods**

### 674 **Understanding trait CWM-Climate relationships and the effects of climate change for** 675 **driving trait CWM changes**

676 To understand the current trait-climate relationships across forests of the tropical Americas,  
677 for each plant trait we modelled the trait CWM as a function of climatic and soil covariates,  
678 with each one of the climatic variables interacting with forest type (lowland or montane) (here  
679 onwards referred to these models as M1). We next analysed the climatic drivers of shifts in  
680 each functional trait given observed changes in climate over the past 40 years for the full  
681 community and survivor assemblages, for the recruit community and fatality community. The  
682 fatality community is defined as those individuals of a plot who were alive in a previous census  
683 but dead in the following census. We calculated the temporal changes in trait CWM at the plot  
684 level as the annual rate of change to standardise for a different time between censuses for  
685 different plots. We then modelled the  $\Delta r$  CWM trait as a function of  $\Delta r$  of the climatic variables

686 described above, each one of these interacting with forest type and also included the soil  
687 characteristics (hereafter referred to these models as M2).

### 688 **Understanding shifts in trait CWM**

689 We used the annual rate of change ( $\Delta r$ ) of the trait CWM of the full, survivor, recruit and fatality  
690 community assemblages to investigate if the rate of trait changes for the overall forests  
691 (lowland and montane together), for the lowland forests alone and the montane forest alone,  
692 was significantly different from 0. We did the same to understand if there were important  
693 differences between the rate of change between lowland and montane forests. To this end we  
694 carried out a Bayesian version of a typical T-test analysis using Bayesian estimation (84, 85).  
695 As above, here we calculated the HDI containing the 95% most probable effect values and  
696 considered a result significant when the HDI did not overlap 0.

### 697 **Understanding if forest community traits are tracking climate changes.**

698 The process outlined below was carried out for the full community, the survivor and recruit  
699 assemblages only as the fatality ones are not tracking climate. We first built the same type of  
700 statistical models as M1 but using only plot and climatic data from between 1980 and 2005,  
701 including also the soil variables (from now on called M1.1). We used the M1.1 Trait-  
702 Environment statistical models and obtained predictions of the trait CWM to a new set of  
703 climatic conditions composed of the 1980-2005 climate plus the observed climate yearly rate  
704 of change across the study period (here onwards M2). We then calculated the difference  
705 between the trait CWM obtained with the M1.1 and M2 models to obtain the expected trait  
706 CWM change. Lastly, we compared the expected trait CWM calculated above with the  
707 observed  $\Delta r$  CWM trait. This allowed us to understand the expected shift in mean trait values  
708 given the 1980-2005 trait-climate relationship in comparison to the observed trait changes  
709 across time (i.e., from 1980-2021). We tested for significant difference between observed and  
710 expected community trait changes using Bayesian estimation (84, 85). We also created  
711 map predictions of the 1980-2005 M1.1 trait-climate model across tropical American forests  
712 by predicting this model to a climate change scenario that was composed of the observed  
713 climate (1980-2005) plus the yearly rate change observed. We then subtracted the original  
714 map predictions (those made with the M1.1 models without changes in climate conditions) to  
715 obtain the expected CWM trait changes at the pixel level (in the map) for across forests in  
716 tropical America. Then we calculated the ratio of the observed, i.e., spatial predictions of the  
717 trait changes observed across time (from M2 models), versus expected and converted to  
718 percentage change relative to the 1980-2005 condition to understand if and to what extent the  
719 observed trait changes are tracking (values above zero) or not (values of zero) the expected  
720 changes given the observed changes in climate or shifting in opposite direction than expected  
721 (values below zero).

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1055 Data gathering: All co-authors  
1056 Data management: JAG, AL, OP, GP  
1057 Writing – original draft: JAG  
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1060 **Data availability**

1061 The vegetation census and plant functional traits data that support the findings of this  
1062 study are available from [gem.tropicalforests.ox.ac.uk](http://gem.tropicalforests.ox.ac.uk) (28), [www.ForestPlots.net](http://www.ForestPlots.net) (29),  
1063 and their other original sources. Given data sovereignty from the original data owners  
1064 raw data on vegetation censuses across time are not publicly available but can be  
1065 requested by contacting all researchers through the ForestPlots (30) data request  
1066 protocol described in [forestplots.net/en/join-forestplots/working-with-data](http://forestplots.net/en/join-forestplots/working-with-data). Raw  
1067 climate data can be accessed through the TerraClimate database (49). The SPEI data  
1068 can be obtained from the SPEI database (86). The computer code used to reproduce  
1069 the main findings in this manuscript (87) and the plot level processed data (88) are  
1070 archived in the Zenodo repository ([zenodo.org](http://zenodo.org)).

1071

1072 **Supplementary Materials**

1073 Materials and Methods

1074 Figs. S1 to S11

1075 Tables S1 to S7

1076 References (35, 89-98)

1077 **Figure legends**

1078 **Fig. 1. Study area showing the distribution and number of vegetation plots sampled**  
1079 **across time (A), principal component analysis (PC1, PC2 and PC3) depicting the climate**  
1080 **and soil chemistry and texture space available in the study area ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ : mean air**  
1081 **temperature, MCWD: maximum climatic water deficit,  $\text{SPEI}_{12}$ : standardised**  
1082 **precipitation-evapotranspiration index, VPD: vapour pressure deficit, CEC: soil cation**  
1083 **exchange capacity, soil pH, sand and clay amount) and the location of the sampling**  
1084 **plots in the environmental space (B), and change in climate conditions (1980-1990 vs**  
1085 **2010-2020) in the plot network (C). In B) PC1 is mainly loaded by the maximum climatic**  
1086 **water deficit (MCWD: -0.527) and Vapour Pressure Deficit (VPD: -0.515), PC2 by air**  
1087 **temperature ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ : -0.465) and soil cation exchange capacity (CEC: 0.524) and PC3 by soil**  
1088 **clay % (-0.535) and soil sand % (0.486). In C) the vertical dotted lines indicate zero change.**  
1089 **Brown colours depict increases in temperature, drier conditions (for MCWD and VPD) or**  
1090 **increased drought intensity (for SPEI: standardised precipitation evapotranspiration index).**  
1091 **Blue colours depict an increase in water availability. In MCWD larger positive values indicate**  
1092 **higher water stress. Climate data was derived from the TerraClimate project (49) and soil data**  
1093 **from SoilGrids.org (50).**

1094  
1095 **Fig. 2. Conceptual figure depicting the analysed mechanisms for change in community**  
1096 **trait composition across the study area.** Tree individuals that are alive and have a diameter  
1097 at breast height equal or above 10 cm are part of the full community assemblage. Across time,  
1098 there can be changes in the community trait composition due to growth of the surviving tree  
1099 individuals (Survivor assemblage) given their increase in basal area (top right). Other  
1100 mechanisms for changing community trait composition across time are the recruitment  
1101 (Recruit assemblage) of new individuals (middle right) and the death (Fatality assemblage) of  
1102 individuals in the community.

1103  
1104 **Fig. 3. The relationship between community-mean plant traits and temperature.** Trait-  
1105 environment relationships for mean annual temperature ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ ) across the vegetation plots.  
1106 Thick blue (for lowland forests) and yellow (for montane forests) lines show the average trait  
1107 response to the climatic variable, with gray-shaded lines show 700 random draws from the  
1108 model posterior distribution representing the variability of the expected model fit. Trait-  
1109 environment relationships for maximum climatic water deficit ( $\text{MCWD}_{\text{mean}}$ ), vapour pressure  
1110 deficit ( $\text{VPD}_{\text{mean}}$ ) and standardised precipitation-evapotranspiration index ( $\text{SPEI}_{\text{mean}}$ ) are  
1111 shown in Figure S2. For full statistical multivariate model results see table S2.  $A_{\text{sat}}$ :  
1112 photosynthetic capacity at light-saturation, C: leaf carbon content, N: leaf nitrogen content, P:  
1113 leaf phosphorus content, Area: leaf area, Fresh mass: leaf fresh mass, SLA: specific leaf area,  
1114 Thickness: leaf thickness, DE: deciduousness,  $H_{\text{max}}$ : adult maximum height, WD: wood  
1115 density, Seed mass: mass of the seed.

1116  
1117 **Fig. 4. The analysed Survivor (top panel), Recruit (middle panel), and Fatality (bottom**  
1118 **panel) assemblages in the study.** In each panel, the highlighted vegetation represents the  
1119 specific assemblage under analysis. Each panel provides a summary of observed changes in  
1120 community traits and the percentage of climate tracking by each assemblage, with exception  
1121 of the Fatality assemblage for which climate tracking is not possible.

1122  
1123  
1124 **Fig. 5. Estimated changes in mean community functional trait values across time for**  
1125 **tropical American forests.** All traits with their spatial prediction maps are shown in Figs. S3  
1126 to S8. A) Changes in trait community-weighted mean (CWM) for leaf photosynthetic capacity  
1127 and leaf chemistry traits, B) for leaf morphology and structural traits and C) for tree phenology

1128 and structural traits. Each panel shows the observed yearly rate of change, obtained from  
1129 sampled vegetation plots, from the statistical models in table S3 for all forests together and  
1130 only for lowland or montane forests for the survivor (blue), recruit (green) and fatality (gray)  
1131 assemblages. Significant shifts are shown as filled circles and non-significant as empty circles.  
1132 The vertical lines depict the Highest Density Intervals (95% HDI), and the horizontal grey  
1133 dotted line indicates zero change.  $A_{\text{sat}}$ : photosynthetic capacity at light saturation, C: leaf  
1134 carbon content, N: leaf nitrogen content, P: leaf phosphorus content, Area: leaf area, Fresh  
1135 mass: leaf fresh mass, SLA: specific leaf area, Thickness: leaf thickness, DE: deciduousness,  
1136  $H_{\text{max}}$ : adult maximum height, WD: wood density, Seed mass: mass of the seed.

1137  
1138

1139 **Fig. 6. Tracking of trait community weighted mean (CWM) for the survivor (A, B) and**  
1140 **recruit (C, D) assemblages in lowland (A, C) and montane (B, D) forests given the**  
1141 **observed changes in climate across the sampling plots.** The X axis shows the ratio of  
1142 changes in trait CWM, based on actual trait CWM changes observed at the plot level through  
1143 time, versus expected changes in trait CWM, based on spatial climate-trait relationships given  
1144 observed changes in climate. Positive values (black bars) indicate that observed and predicted  
1145 changes are both positive or both negative and, hence, are going into the same direction,  
1146 whereas negative values (grey bars) indicate that observed and predicted changes are going  
1147 in opposite directions. A ratio of change value of one would indicate perfect tracking. The Y  
1148 axis shows the traits sorted by the change ratio amount (see full statistical details in table S6  
1149 and table S7). Values of zero and close to zero represent no or slight trait shifts.  $A_{\text{sat}}$ :  
1150 photosynthetic capacity at light saturation, C: leaf carbon content, N: leaf nitrogen content, P:  
1151 leaf phosphorus content, Area: leaf area, Fresh mass: leaf fresh mass, SLA: Specific leaf area,  
1152 Thickness: leaf thickness, DE: deciduousness,  $H_{\text{max}}$ : adult maximum height, WD: wood  
1153 density, Seed mass: weight of the seed.